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AN ANALYSIS OF THE CHRONIC OFFENDER  
PROBLEM WITHIN THE ARMED FORCES

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE  
IN  
MANAGEMENT

United States Naval Postgraduate School  
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## ABSTRACT

Delinquency - habitual delinquency - is presently of major concern to virtually every American military activity. In 1964, almost 25,000 servicemen were discharged from the Armed Forces for reasons of unfitness. Many thousands more were involved in major offenses, court-martialled, and confined in military correctional institutions.

The cost of these disciplinary proceedings is staggering - both in terms of dollars and loss of military operational effectiveness - and is increasing every year. With our present high emphasis on qualitative analysis, maximum utilization of resources and cost effectiveness within the Department of Defense, it would seem obvious that a whole-hearted effort should be made to reduce the high cost of military discipline.

This paper attempts to point out the factors and variables involved in the personalities who become chronic offenders, examines what is now being done by the military to combat the problem and proposes policy modifications designed to maximize our effectiveness in dealing with deviant individuals.



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## CHAPTER I

### BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

"The seventeenth century has been called the Age of Enlightenment, the eighteenth, the Age of Reason, the nineteenth, the Age of Progress and the twentieth, the Age of Anxiety." (Coleman, 1964)

Although ours is an era of tremendous growth and technological advancement - reportedly more scientific and technological discoveries have been made in the last fifty years than in all previous recorded time - our scientific discoveries have seemed to lead us to a realization of the finiteness of our own individual existence, with corresponding conjecture and debate relative to the real meaning of life. "To many, traditional values and beliefs no longer seem self-evident." (Coleman, 1964)

Unfortunately, advances in the understanding of man have lagged behind those made in the physical sciences. The resident of our modern society often seems bewildered, anxious, and unhappy. Many people are missing the fulfillment of their best potential because they cannot achieve satisfactory adjustment to their problems.

"Instead of smooth, effective functioning, there is widespread personality maladjustment. In this age of anxiety, Americans spend over \$10 billion dollars a year on liquor, books on personality adjustment have become best sellers, and the volume of tranquilizing drugs sold is measured in the hundreds of tons." (Coleman, 1964)

When the layman thinks about abnormal behavior, he is most likely to think of spectacular, bizarre, and extreme examples. However, the typical, more prevalent maladjusted behavior involves ineffective approaches to problem solving rather than severe, incapacitating mental disorders. Coleman (1964) quotes a series of statistics about U. S.



residents which are somewhat shocking.

10,000,000 are neurotics

300,000 are in penal institutions

250,000 are "first admissions" to mental hospitals each year

5,000,000 are problem drinkers

1,000,000 are chronic alcoholics

750,000 are in mental institutions

5,500,000 are "mentally deficient"

3,000,000 have character disorders

3,000,000 children have emotional and character problems

What separates the normal from the abnormal individual? Unfortunately, there is no clear cut, sharp dividing line. People cannot be separated into groups labeled "Normal" and "Abnormal". Success in adjustment is normally distributed, with most people clustered around a central point or average, and the rest spreading out to the extremes. Most people have made moderately good adjustments; some at the lower extreme have to be institutionalized in mental hospitals, and a few at the other extreme lead unusually happy, efficient and useful lives.

Some anti-social behavior must, therefore, be anticipated from members of the armed forces, and the necessary disciplinary, punitive and rehabilitative machinery must be provided. This has been true for every military organization throughout history.

Recently, however, especially since the advent of the Uniform Code of Military Justice in 1951, there has been a deterioration of the iron discipline traditionally characteristic of U. S. military life. Habitual delinquency is presently of major concern to virtually every American





military activity. In 1964, almost 25,000 servicemen were discharged from the Armed Forces for various reasons of unfitness. Many thousands more were involved in major offenses, court martialled, sentenced and confined in military punitive and correctional institutions. The cost of these disciplinary proceedings is staggering - and increasing every year. With out present high emphasis on quantitative analysis, maximum utilization of resources and cost effectiveness within the Department of Defense, it would seem obvious that an extensive effort should be made to reduce the high cost of military discipline.

As one might expect, over 80% of all military enlisted personnel are relatively mature, well behaved individuals who make definite positive contributions to their respective services. About 15%, however, comprise a group which will be responsible for almost 90% of all disciplinary infractions. Unfortunately, the size of this sub-group has been increasing steadily, with the rise corresponding almost directly with that of civilian juvenile crime.

It appears, therefore, that this 15% sub-group represents fertile territory for study and analysis. Within this group are those personnel who will be repeatedly involved in disciplinary offenses. These are the individuals whom we will call the chronic offenders. They differ from their "normal" shipmates both in the frequency of offenses committed and in their inability (or unwillingness) to profit from past experiences. The dividing line between chronic offenders and offenders who are not chronic is admittedly vague and largely a matter of opinion, as other variables besides number of offenses may be pertinent. An exact criterion - or definition - will not, therefore, be attempted at this time.



More important - and the major areas and issues of this study - are:

1. A more complete understanding of the factors and elements which combine to produce the chronic offender.
2. What means are available - or will eventually be possible - to predict which individuals in a group of recruits will be chronic offenders.
3. Given that an individual is a chronic offender, what can be done to rehabilitate and/or correct his deviant behavior.



## CHAPTER II

### INVESTIGATION INTO THE FACTORS AND VARIABLES WHICH INFLUENCE INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR

Members of the armed forces are products of our American society. The behavior and values manifested by service personnel are basically behavior and values learned in the society and sub-cultures of their childhood and adolescent years. Accolades made in tribute to the accomplishments of young people must necessarily give substantial credit to the societies, environments, homes and educational institutions that generated them. Accordingly, any criticism made of young people must place some of the blame upon the society, environments, homes and educational institutions.

Essential to a clear understanding of military personnel who have been unsuccessful in adjusting to military life is a clear understanding of their backgrounds, their families, and their beliefs. We must know how the individual functioned within - and how he depended upon - society, prior to induction into the armed services.

Certainly, a human's dependence upon society begins long before he is born. It starts with the folkways and mores which influence the behavior of his parents and extends to the entire system of cultural practices which surround the family. "In fact, the social circumstances preceding his birth not only make his life possible, but they also laid down to a great extent the kind of life he was to lead." (Davis, 1960)

The heart of socialization is the development and emergence of the ego - the self. It is in terms of the self that the personality takes shape and the mind comes into function. Ego develops from social inter-



action with others - i.e., through communicative contact. Ego is mainly a social structure and it develops through social experience. "Ego, or self, is perpetually in a state of uneasy equilibrium." (Davis, 1960) It strives for superiority (approval of others) and fears inferiority (disapproval of others). Conflict between what it must do and what it wants to do acts as a constant stimulant to bring about a proper adjustment. The ego is apparently a dynamic system, the parts of which relate to one another functionally but which never really integrate. It is an unsatisfied creature - one that is always striving, seeking and desiring. The conflicts which arise in the ego create frustrations - and lead the individual to find solutions and accept ideas and attitudes of others. Such behavior tends to make him less egocentric. He learns to identify and communicate with others and to participate in cooperative activities.

As the normal individual matures, he develops as "modus vivendi" (Johnson, 1960) whereby some satisfaction is given to all parts of the self but no part is allowed to run away the others and thus divorce the person from his social reality. The abnormal individual is one who fails to work out this "modus vivendi" as he grows to adulthood. As such, he differentiates himself from his contemporaries. Disliking this differentiation, he will seek, either actively or passively, companions who share his ideas and/or values or who merely, like himself are differentiated from the group. Adolescence is the last, and often the most intense period of socialization. The individual has attained almost complete physical maturity but has not reached social maturity. He is, in fact, in a socially subordinate position. The result is often extreme disharmony, between generations and peers alike. Many pressures are levied on the adolescent and many decisions are demanded of him.







Most individuals are able to make satisfactory adjustments in this crucial period of their lives. Yet many - and the percentage seems to be increasing - are not. Raab (1959) lists several causative factors which are instrumental in influencing delinquent development. One very plausible, reasonable influence is explained as the delinquent society. Many values projected by society at large are delinquent values. Additionally, emphasis on success makes many moral standards ineffective. The community is therefore responsible for breeding and spawning many of the value conflicts which reduce and weaken social control. Anti-social values are impregnated into the adult "real world" that surrounds the youngster. Double standards are readily apparent in "white collar" crime - i.e., adult behavior which is socially acceptable although illegal. Additionally, when delinquent behavior pays off, moral standards often appear obsolete and society's ability to control the individual is thereby reduced. Modern society stresses individual success and judges it largely by financial and material standards. Officially, honesty is praised. However, attainment of objectives by almost any means is usually more solidly rewarded. As the pressure for success gradually reaches and then overcomes the emphasis of moral standards, transmission and acceptance of these moral standards become more difficult.

Harry M. Johnson, in his book, Sociology: A Systematic Introduction (1960) assumes a similar viewpoint. He emphasizes that adolescence is probably unusually difficult in our society because the adolescent or "adult to be" has to make difficult and extremely important decisions more or less on his own. Johnson also advocates the "anomie theory" which is a condition in which many persons in a social system have a



weakened respect for some social norm and this loss of legitimacy is traceable to something about the social structure itself. Johnson then claims that this "anomie" will lead to "social deviation" - i.e., a violation of norms to which the actor is oriented. Deviation can be active or ~~passive~~ passive. It can be an alienation expressed by avoidance or withdrawal as well as by more vigorous acts. Deviation from the acceptable behavior norm can also be as a manifestation of negative feelings - a generalized rebellion against authority.

Such theories, as good as they are, present only a partial picture - only a single piece in the jig-saw. Raab (1959) also lists group control factors as contributory to social instability. Raab argues that "juvenile delinquency is best understood as a breakdown in the machinery of social control." According to his social "disintegration" approach, there has been a general weakening of our traditional groups and institutions, such as the family, the church and the local community. These have become "less integrated, less cohesive in purpose." As a result, they are less able to control their members. This lack of control manifests itself primarily as a failure to transmit traditional moral standards and social values.

This view is clearly distinct from learning theory (Sutherland, 1947) which claims that some children become delinquents because the groups to which they belong are essentially delinquent and effectively transmit their deviant values. The essential difference between this theory and Raab's theory of social control is that Raab emphasizes the failure of non-delinquent groups to transmit their moral ideals and control their members.



Actually, it appears that these arguments are merely two sides to the same coin. One side is the breakdown of the group itself; the other side is a breakdown of the values which the group holds. "There is," according to Raab, "an unfissionable relationship between a group, such as the family, and the moral standards which it embraces." It is because of these ties among its members that the group can evoke its loyalty and can effectively transmit its values. When these ties are weakened or eliminated, Raab assumes that the group's control will subsequently evaporate.

An extension of the above arguments would be the theories of environmental influence which maintain that delinquency will tend to be concentrated in certain areas of the community where the breakdown of social control is most marked. Such areas are characterized by physical deterioration and congestion. Slum areas, with their substandard housing facilities and overcrowding attract a disproportionate number of families having shallow roots. These are the immigrants, the minority groups, the demoralized and the discontented - families characterized by instability, drunkenness, criminality and unemployment. These are also neighborhoods in flux, which attract the transients, the drifters. Personal relationships seldom develop deeply. Children face adult impersonality and indifference. The breakdown may be even more accentuated because of the necessity for the mother to work and absent herself from the home. There is a cumulative tradition of delinquent behavior creating a subsequent learning situation. Economic deprivation breeds delinquency. Juvenile delinquency rates are highly correlated with low income, substandard housing and overcrowding. Poverty is not a direct cause, of course, but it has been found to be very contributory. According to Johnson (1960)





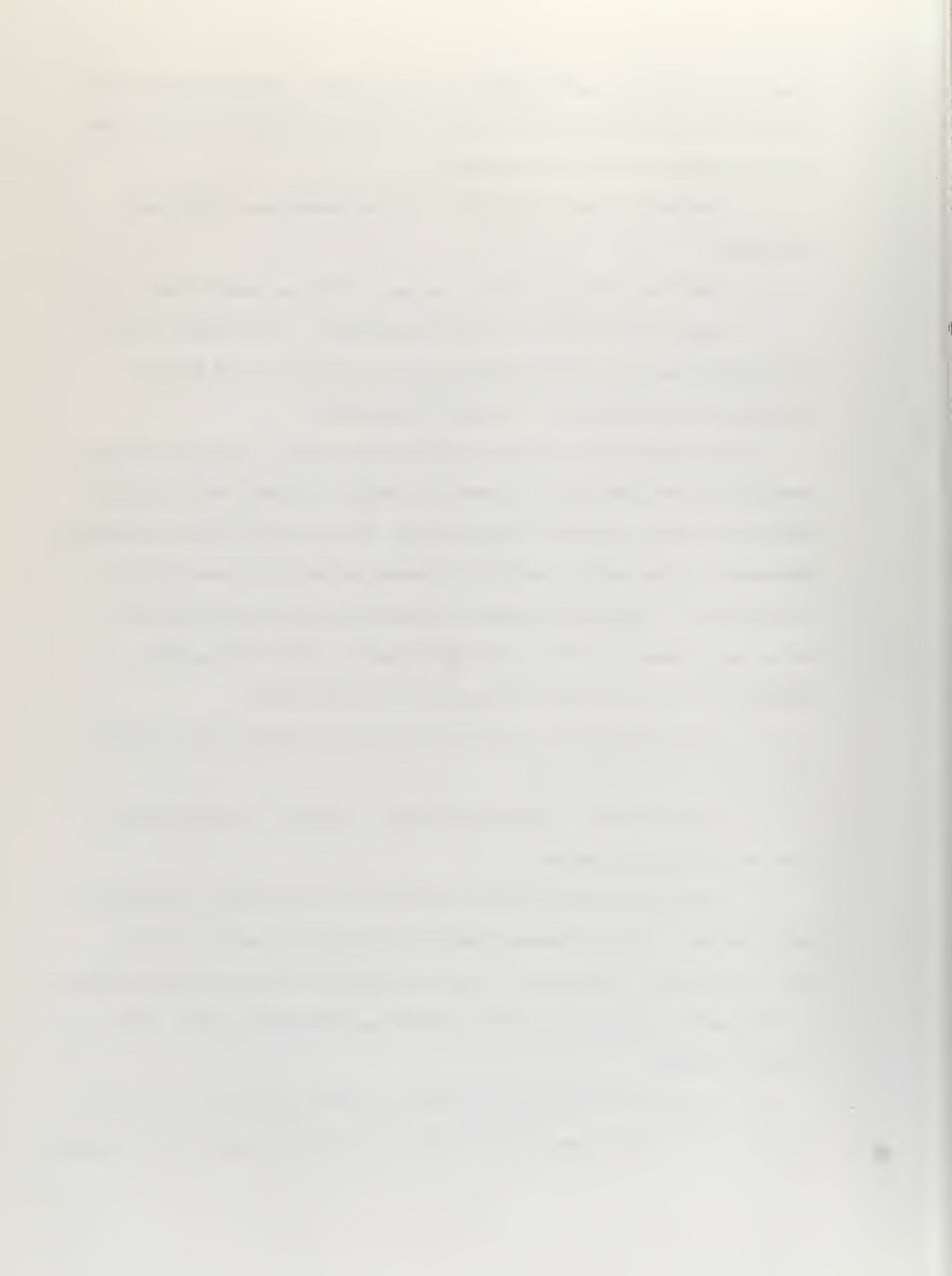
lower class boys are handicapped by their position, especially when they compete with upper and middle class boys. They can react to their handicapped situation in one of three ways.

1. Decide to buck the system by pulling themselves up by their bootstraps.
2. Mark time through school, then get a job and remain lower class.
3. Reject middle and upper class standards. Base success on the bold activities of a gang (standards he can live up to) and become a compulsive non-conformist - a juvenile delinquent.

Gangs seem almost essential to delinquency, and it appears that many young people are practically forced into gangs to effect their survival. According to Shaw, juvenile gangs recruit, stimulate and teach delinquents. Membership in one gang or another is almost mandatory in some big city neighborhoods. "Eighty-two percent of juvenile crime is committed with one or more companions (for theft, the figure is 89%)." (Shaw, 1951) Gangs contribute to juvenile delinquency in several ways.

1. Adolescents want to conform to the ways of their peers. There is a pressure for conformity.
2. Gangs provide a learning situation, not only for members, but also for younger age groups.
3. Gangs provide anti-social channels for the energies and needs of their members. Johnson agrees with this thinking by stating, "It is fairly generally, although not unanimously accepted that the vast majority of delinquents come from the lower classes and that they commit their crimes in gangs."

In a study of delinquent gangs made in Chicago (Short, 1965) Negro and white lower class gang members were compared with lower class non-gang





boys in the same neighborhoods and with middle class boys of the same race. A most noteworthy result of this study was the variance in perceptions claimed by the various groups. Legitimate occupational opportunities are perceived to be available less often by gang members. White boys were found to be more optimistic than Negroes relative to available opportunities, and middle class boys, regardless of race were the most optimistic. An almost identical pattern emerged for educational opportunities, except that the racial difference is not evident among gang members. Differences in perceptions of illegitimate opportunities are, expectedly, the reverse of those found for legitimate ones. (The author does not mention, however, that the perceptions may have been factored by a real differential in opportunities available to the different groups).

The implications clearly presume that perceptions of opportunities precede involvement in acts of delinquency. It can, therefore, be concluded that to account for selection into the gang subculture, from those that are available for membership (and for individual behavior within that subculture) requires reference to levels of explanation other than social structure. Personality variables and group process considerations must be examined to explain membership and internal behavior within gangs. This study will not, however, attempt to report the findings of such studies, but will rather concentrate on individual behavior variables.

Such a concentration would not be complete without returning briefly to the anomie theory. Writing in the American Sociological Review, Albert Cohen (1965) states, "The position (of the Anomie Theory) is to account for the distribution of deviant behavior among the positions in the social structure. It attempts to account for deviant behavior as a function of system properties - i.e., the ways in which cultural goals



and opportunities for their realization are available within the social system." Cohen later implies that such a theory is incomplete because levels of aspirations, needs and desires are not fixed, and are not taken from the culture as a package and swallowed whole. The theory, he says, suffers from the "assumption of discontinuity," implying that it treats the deviant act as if it were an abrupt change of state - "a leap from a state of strain (or anomie) to a state of deviance." Despite such criticisms and theoretical weaknesses, it would certainly seem that the anomie theory has considerable merit. The history of delinquency and deviant acts seems little more than a history of an interaction process - or series of processes - the precedents of which are a sequence of events which unfold as results of many, assorted decisions and actions. The starting point is, as Cohen says, the question "Given the social structure, what will the ego do?" Anomie theory recognizes the effects of deviance on the very variables that determine deviance. This seems to be a sound deduction, at least to these writers. The theory of anomie has also been criticized by McClosky and Schaar (1965). According to these writers, anomie theory is unsound because sociological explanations have been used to the "virtual exclusion of all others." They also claim that the theory itself is burdened with conceptual weaknesses and cannot account for many relevant facts. They claim that results of studies conducted by them show that anomic responses are powerfully governed by cognitive and personality factors (hostility, anxiety, inflexible defensiveness, etc.) and these relationships hold either independently of, or in combination with, social influences. Indirect support, they say, is furnished for the view that anomie results from impediments to interaction, communication, and learning, and is a sign of impaired socialization. Regardless



of the inadequacies and shortcomings that many authorities attribute to the theory it still seems to be a valuable device to aid in the full understanding of social inconsistencies which contribute to deviant and delinquent behavior.

By far the most pertinent, meaningful and applicable area of study relative to deviant behavior is the personality itself. "Delinquency is the expression of a delinquent personality." (Coleman, 1962) Such individuals are not necessarily mentally ill, in the clinical sense, but their personality structures are such that they normally react to their problems with anti-social behavior. Although extreme care must be taken not to oversimplify, it appears that when applied with the ingredients as outlined above, the personality approach seems most plausible in presenting the answer.

"The delinquent can, generally speaking, be classified as belonging to one of the two following groups." (Coleman, 1964)

1. dyssocial - i.e., displaying behavior involving distorted value systems but having no real personality disintegration.
2. anti-social - having, a personality disorder characterized by such traits as impulsivity, inability to learn from experience and unethical behavior.

Both of the above characteristics can be found in all age groups and are common to both sexes. Only a very few are ever committed to mental institutions. Most, even though they are in constant conflict with the authority within their environments, manage to escape correctional institutions altogether.

Identification of potential delinquent personalities requires a basic understanding of the variables which effect personality development.





Volunimous material relating to the subject seems to indicate there are two basic factors pertinent to personality development.

1. Biological Factors - much emphasis has been put on the physiological and constitutional factors as a basis for anti-social/dyssocial behavior. Because traits such as impulsiveness and intolerance of discipline tend to make their appearance early in life, some writers suggest an "imbalance between inhibitory and excitatory processes in the nervous system as basic to the etiological pattern." (Eysenck, (1960) has gathered evidence which may indicate possible congenital injuries which may impair higher inhibitory centers in the nervous system.

This may explain why many anti-social/dyssocial persons are more vulnerable to breakdown of inner controls under stressful conditions. Eysenck concludes that the chronic offender has a slower rate of conditioning than a normal individual which presumably causes him not to acquire the conditioned reactions which form an essential part of normal socialization. He also believes that such delinquent personalities are "likely to be deficient in conscience development."

2. Psychological Factors - It seems as more information is gathered, investigators are concluding that anti-social, dyssocial behavior typically seems to be defensive and retaliatory rather than simply disruptive or disorganized, as it might be with a physiological defect. There is evidence that anti-social personalities act out their conflicts and impulses rather than learning to worry about them. Wilkens (1961) indicates that anti-social personalities, much like "businessmen or politicians seem to have a career or life style." They can be viewed as following a consistent learned pattern of living which tends to be self perpetuating.





Thus, they are resistant to change because of their ready rationalizations, projections and their relative freedom from anxiety.

Many studies indicate pathogenic family patterns play the key underlying role in the development of both anti-social and dyssocial personalities. However, there is apparently no direct correlation between family economic affluency and "normalcy" because all income groups have been well represented in almost all studies.

Expressing a variation to the above viewpoint, Raab (1959) maintains that the delinquent personality can be typified as follows.

1. The delinquent suffers from extreme emotional deprivation.

A primary need for the child is affection, recognition and a sense of belonging. Not only is the withholding of love painful to a child, it also undercuts his sense of security and his estimate of himself and his competency.

This casual theory does not state that emotional problems or anxiety lead directly to delinquency. Rather, it holds that extreme emotional deprivation robs the juvenile of the resources for handling his emotional problems or anxiety in a constructive way.

2. The delinquent has failed for emotional reasons to internalize moral principles.

The failure to develop a conscience is a critical characteristic of delinquency. It means, in effect, that the inability to master immediate urges and needs for the sake of conforming to social standards. This failure may result from being raised in a moral vacuum, where social standards are weak or ineffectively transmitted. This failure may also result from an emotional incapacity to take on moral standards even when



they are present. The child is usually willing to "be good" out of love for his parents and to identify them as models of good behavior. Where the parent is negligent or rejective, however, the child has no incentive to curb himself for the sake of approval, acceptance and security.

3. The delinquent responds to his problems by aggression toward authority.

Aggression toward authority is more a manifestation of delinquency than a cause. However, if only as a symptom of more basic emotional factors, aggression toward authority is an operating component of the delinquent personality. Aggression may be a weapon adopted by a child against parents whom he believes have rejected him - and this aggression may then be turned against all authority. Even though punishment may result, it is preferred over non-recognition. Often where moral standards are operative, a sense of guilt accompanies the misbehavior and compounds the aggressive tendencies.

It is possible, of course, that these three components may coincide with personality deterioration and with clinical neurotic symptoms. However, only an insignificant proportion of delinquent behavior is attributable to serious mental illness of a kind, for example, which requires hospitalization. The basic "delinquent personality" is not as a rule regarded as, in itself, a neurotic, psychotic or mentally ill personality but is, rather, merely a destructive personality pattern.

Raab also warns against sweeping generalizations and over simplifications of the over-all problem through use of the personality approach. It must be remembered that the distinction between delinquent and non-delinquent seems to reside not in the sharp difference in the nature of their emotional problems but rather in the way they respond to and act



out their problems. It is, therefore, not sufficient to say that anxiety causes delinquency because anxiety can be high in both delinquent and non-delinquent groups. The delinquent personality theory does not, in itself, fully explain why some maladjusted children react with anti-social and delinquent behavior rather than with some non-delinquent form of maladaptive behavior, such as over-withdrawal. However, even where personality disturbance may not be the full answer to delinquency, psychiatric understanding is an important factor in the rehabilitation of individual delinquents. The personality theory approach has the further advantage of bridging the gap between the society and the delinquent individual by focusing attention upon the environmental and family relations of the child.

There is still another theory - an extension to the dissension above - which seems worthy of mention. Epitomized by Sutherland's Theory of Differential Association, it is called the Learning Theory or Learning Approach to Delinquency. Its distinctive features are as follows:

1. The child learns his values and his behavior from those with whom he associates... he has little choice but to do so. If he is chiefly in contact with attitudes and behavior that are anti-social and delinquent, then his own behavior will be delinquent. Essentially, the theory maintains that the individual will assume the standards of his environment.

2. Anxiety - and emotional needs - characterize many non-delinquent as well as many delinquents. Delinquents are differentiated, then, not by their psychological needs but rather by the way they learn to meet these needs.





3. The process of learning delinquent values and behavior involves both conscious imitation and the mechanisms of learning. It seems evident that young people are quick to absorb attitudes implicitly favorable to violation of the law or antagonistic to the social order.

The theory of differential association - or the learning theory - does not explain, however, why, when alternate groups are available, some children choose the delinquent gang. Nor does the theory explain the original presence of delinquency in a particular environment or any epidemic rise in delinquency rates within a community.

Also influential to the plausibility of delinquent behavior is modern mass media. Radio, television, movies, comic books and newspapers contribute to delinquency by glorifying, overemphasizing, and giving instructions in crime. According to Raab, some of the charges against the mass media are:

1. They stimulate the juvenile appetite for excitement and violence.
2. They stimulate the appetite for illicit sexual adventure.
3. They impart knowledge of criminal techniques.
4. They glorify the criminal.
5. They overemphasize the extent of criminal life in our society.

Although the evidence may be a little inconclusive for the above statements, it does appear reasonable to hypothesize that delinquent behavior is often aggravated through the various forms of mass media. Voluntary censorship has failed miserably, as might be expected. The solution (if there is one) must rest with the public - in its development of standards, ethics, and policies which will generate responsible publishing and programming. The probability of such a development within our society - especially in view of present day tastes - seems indeed remote.





CHAPTER III  
METHODS FOR IDENTIFICATION AND  
REHABILITATION OF CHRONIC OFFENDERS

From the quantity of data available and the interest devoted by many social scientists, present understanding of delinquency seems reasonably complete - especially in two areas. First, we have identified with fair accuracy the social structures that contain high rates of juvenile crime. Secondly, there have been developed many theories regarding the social - psychological processes which lead to delinquency. Although much knowledge is still needed, the problem, as it applies to this paper is not one of identifying the delinquent of a civilian society. This is usually easily accomplished adequately during military induction by examination of police files. The problem facing the military establishment seems to be this: Given an individual, be he either delinquent or non-delinquent, are there accurate and dependable measuring and/or predictive devices which can identify those who will not be able to make the personality adjustments necessary for subsequent satisfactory military service? A study has indicated that delinquency alone is not, in itself, always a valid predictor, although half the former juvenile delinquents in the study were shown to have had unsatisfactory service careers. (Roff, 1961) (By comparison, in a control group which was not made up of juvenile delinquents, unsatisfactory service occurred about one in eight.)

Several other studies, under various service sponsorship, have attempted to aid in resolving this very important issue. Some of the more significant efforts are reported herein.



Among the best and most consistent indicators of adaptation to military life have been age, intelligence, and schooling completed. These predictors have been shown to be valid in a variety of situations, some of which we shall investigate in this section. The problem of concern in the study of biographical indicators can be simply stated: What factors in the individual's personal background and past life experience predispose him to encounter serious difficulties in adapting to the rules and regulations of the military service?

Generally, biographical items selected for study were designed to reflect instability and conflict in the home, inconsistent or extreme disciplinary practices by parents, and persistent difficulties in school adjustment. It was hypothesized that individuals who reported those types of adverse experiences in their backgrounds would be less able to meet the demands of military life.

In one study conducted, (Gunderson, 1963) the subjects were 743 Navy Enlisted Men aboard an aircraft carrier and included a wide variety of rates and job assignments. To better control the age and experience variables, only men under age 21 were included in the study. The mean educational level was 11.1 years, and the mean GCT score was 52.2. Length of naval service varied from 3 to 44 months with the average being 16.8 months.

Twenty-six items of biographical and personal information were contained in the test booklet and are listed in Table I. In addition to the normal identifying information (name, rank, serial number), the following information was asked: age, height, weight, marital status, number of months in service, number of months in rate, school years



TABLE 1

Relationships between Biographical Characteristics and Criteria<sup>a</sup>

<u>Item</u>	<u>Offense</u>		<u>Proficiency</u>		<u>Conduct</u>		<u>Sick Call</u>	
	$\chi^2$	p	$\chi^2$	p	$\chi^2$	p	$\chi^2$	p
Grades Failed	7.54	<.05	.16	-	1.23	-	4.55	-
Trouble with Teachers	9.64	<.01	.63	-	10.43	<.01	3.36	-
Truant	7.64	<.05	2.79	-	12.91	<.01	.93	-
Residence Changes	2.31	-	.96	-	.61	-	.32	-
Sports	4.05	-	1.67	-	2.71	-	2.11	-
Father's Education	2.67	-	1.26	-	2.95	-	3.42	-
Mother's Education	1.25	-	.87	-	.42	-	4.91	-
Religion (Importance)	3.61	-	.20	-	1.10	-	.14	-
Religion (Agreement)	2.25	-	2.00	-	3.85	-	1.71	-
Discipline (By Whom)	7.72	<.05	.82	-	7.16	<.05	.80	-
Discipline By Father	30.60	<.001	2.55	-	12.96	<.01	11.32	<.02
Discipline By Mother	5.57	-	2.75	-	1.85	-	3.13	-
Turn to in Trouble	17.32	<.01	1.42	-	2.38	-	9.65	<.05
Mother Dead	.17	-	.01	-	2.89	-	.55	-
Father Dead	1.44	-	1.39	-	.10	-	.00	-
Parents Separated	7.08	<.01	.06	-	.07	-	1.54	-
Parents Divorced	13.90	<.001	.64	-	5.00	<.03	.50	-
Adopted	2.43	-	.35	-	.42	-	3.10	-

<sup>a</sup>Relationship tested by  $\chi^2$  technique for 2 x k tables (McNemar, Q., Psychological statistics, 3rd Ed., Wiley & Sons, 1962, p. 229). 500.





completed, school grades failed, trouble with teachers, truancy, age started working full time, residence changes before age 14, sports participated in, education of father and mother, to whom subject would turn if in trouble, death of father or mother, separation of parents, and adoption information.

Results are summarized in Tables 1, 2, and 3. Significance of relationships between criteria and items was tested by means of the "X<sup>2</sup> Technique" as shown in Tables 1 and 2. Frequencies and percentages for all response categories are given in Table 3.

Eight of the 18 biographical items tabulated were significantly associated with committing disciplinary offenses. It is apparent that committing disciplinary infractions is related to age at enlistment, years of education, GCT, Delinquency score, and Maturity score. Number of offenses is related to length of military service, which only means that offenses accumulate over time. A detailed analysis of these relationships in the present data indicates that the number of years of formal education completed was the best single predictor of the disciplinary offense criterion.

The study also indicated certain behavior deviation tendencies are associated with lax or erratic discipline by father, discipline not primarily administered by father, separation or divorce of parents, not turning to parents when in trouble, and persistent difficulties in school adjustment, probably related to troubles as mentioned in the home.

Another study, (Klieger, 1962) done by the Army was based on data obtained during the period November 1952 to October 1953. Operational test scores of a random sample of enlisted inductees were obtained at all Army Reception Centers. This test gives us further clues as to





TABLE 2  
Distribution of Selected Sample on  
Biographic Index and Offense Criterion

<u>Biographic Index</u>	<u>Criterion</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Offender</u>	<u>Nonoffender</u>	
High Score ( 5)	26	13	39
Low Score ( 5)	9	15	24
Total	35	28	N 63

$$\chi^2 = 5.12, p .03$$



TABLE 3

Distribution of Criterion Groups on Biographical Response Categories  
(Frequencies and Percentages)

ITEM	RESPONSE CATEGORY	OFFENSE			CONDUCT			PROFICIENCY			SICK CALL		
		YES N	%	NO %	LOW <sup>a</sup> N	%	HIGH %	LOW N	%	HIGH %	LOW N	%	HIGH %
GRADES FAILED	None	89	(66)	361 (77)	110	(69)	264 (72)	147	(71)	221 (71)	280	(72)	201 (67)
	One	29	(22)	123 (24)	40	(25)	76 (21)	44	(21)	67 (22)	88	(23)	74 (24)
	More than one	16	(12)	27 (5)	10	(6)	27 (7)	16	(8)	21 (7)	19	(5)	26 (9)
TROUBLE WITH TEACHERS	None	41	(31)	234 (46)	52	(33)	175 (48)	84	(41)	137 (44)	173	(45)	118 (39)
	Occasionally	60	(45)	183 (36)	70	(44)	121 (33)	76	(37)	110 (36)	136	(35)	127 (42)
	Frequently	32	(24)	94 (18)	37	(23)	70 (19)	45	(22)	62 (20)	75	(20)	59 (19)
TRUANT	Never	35	(26)	173 (34)	46	(29)	126 (34)	63	(30)	108 (35)	124	(32)	90 (30)
	Once or twice	65	(49)	256 (50)	71	(44)	188 (51)	101	(49)	151 (49)	196	(51)	155 (51)
	Often	34	(25)	80 (16)	44	(27)	52 (14)	44	(21)	49 (16)	64	(17)	58 (19)
RESIDENCE CHANGES	Two or less	49	(37)	224 (44)	67	(42)	150 (41)	86	(42)	127 (42)	165	(43)	126 (42)
	Three-five	46	(35)	159 (31)	53	(34)	114 (31)	61	(30)	102 (33)	116	(31)	98 (32)
	Six or more	39	(29)	124 (24)	38	(24)	99 (28)	58	(28)	77 (25)	98	(26)	78 (26)
SPORTS	Not at all	31	(23)	85 (17)	34	(21)	65 (18)	37	(18)	58 (19)	66	(17)	63 (21)
	Occasionally	54	(40)	196 (39)	53	(33)	144 (40)	72	(35)	123 (40)	159	(42)	112 (37)
	Often	49	(37)	227 (45)	73	(46)	155 (42)	96	(47)	127 (41)	158	(41)	128 (42)
FATHER'S EDUCATION	Six yrs/less	16	(13)	48 (10)	19	(12)	32 (9)	23	(11)	28 (10)	46	(12)	25 (9)
	Seven-nine	49	(39)	172 (34)	53	(34)	129 (36)	70	(34)	98 (34)	136	(36)	103 (35)
	Ten-Twelve	47	(37)	204 (41)	60	(38)	149 (42)	80	(39)	124 (43)	149	(39)	118 (40)
	More than 12	15	(12)	77 (15)	28	(16)	44 (12)	30	(15)	38 (13)	48	(13)	47 (16)
MOTHER'S EDUCATION	Six yrs/less	10	(8)	34 (7)	12	(8)	22 (6)	15	(7)	18 (6)	33	(9)	13 (4)
	Seven-nine	37	(29)	131 (26)	43	(27)	100 (28)	57	(28)	84 (28)	98	(26)	80 (27)
	Ten-twelve	61	(48)	284 (56)	84	(53)	195 (54)	109	(53)	162 (53)	206	(54)	168 (56)
	More than 12	20	(16)	60 (12)	20	(12)	44 (12)	23	(11)	41 (13)	45	(12)	37 (12)

<sup>a</sup>"Low" indicates a mark of 3.0 and below for Conduct and Proficiency while "high" indicates 3.2 and above; "low" for Sick Call indicates none or one and "high" indicates more than one.



correlates of predictors that may be used to indicate future disciplinary problems in the service. Selected service inductees (US) and voluntary enlistees (RA) were studied separately.

A combined criterion consisting of type of discharge and court-martial conviction was used as a basis for comparing acceptability in the several samples. The group was divided into three categories:

1. Honorable Discharge with no court-martial convictions.
2. Honorable Discharge with one or more courts-martial convictions.
3. Other than Honorable Discharge.

Predictor variables are listed in Table 4 which also shows coefficients of intercorrelation among the predictors. They are divided into five broad categories:

1. Armed Forces Qualification Test Score.
2. Army Classification Battery Scores.
3. Education (years prior entry into service).
4. Pre-service criminal convictions (0 equals no convictions and 1 equals one or more).
5. Pre-service medical complaints (number of psychosomatic type prior to current military service).

Table 5 shows the number and percentage of cases in each sample and subsample by criterion category. Critical ratios for selected differences in proportions are presented. Considering the total "US" sample, about 7 percent had received other than Honorable Discharges and/or courts-martial convictions. Although men in AFQT categories IV and V (i.e., lowest categories) comprised 33 percent of the cases in the unfavorable criterion category (30 out of 51 cases).





TABLE 4

COEFFICIENTS OF INTERCORRELATION AMONG 14 PREDICTORS IN BROAD-BASED US SAMPLE

Variable <sup>a</sup>	Intercorrelations													
1. AFQT Score	<u>1</u>													
2. Reading and Vocabulary	.74	<u>2</u>												
3. Arithmetic Reasoning	.83	.75	<u>3</u>											
4. Pattern Analysis	.79	.66	.73	<u>4</u>										
5. Mechanical Aptitude	.72	.63	.67	.69	<u>5</u>									
6. Army Clerical Speed	.65	.66	.70	.59	.56	<u>6</u>								
7. Army Radio Code	.46	.46	.48	.42	.39	.46	<u>7</u>							
8. Shop Mechanics	.72	.64	.67	.68	.76	.55	.36	<u>8</u>						
9. Automotive Information	.53	.39	.44	.49	.63	.34	.17	.69	<u>9</u>					
10. Electrical Information	.57	.51	.54	.53	.56	.41	.34	.60	.52	<u>10</u>				
11. Radio Information	.39	.32	.36	.38	.39	.24	.28	.37	.31	.51	<u>11</u>			
12. Education	.60	.65	.66	.55	.53	.60	.41	.50	.24	.44	.28	<u>12</u>		
13. Pre-service Criminal Conviction	-.05	-.06	-.04	-.02	-.01	-.04	-.05	-.05	-.03	-.06	.00	-.04	<u>13</u>	
14. Pre-service Medical Complaints	.12	.11	.13	.14	.13	.10	.09	.10	.10	.10	.07	.09	.04	<u>14</u>

<sup>a</sup>Variables 2-11 are ACB test scores.





TABLE 5

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF EM IN THREE CRITERION CATEGORIES  
FOR BROAD-BASED AND RESTRICTED SAMPLES

Sample	Honorable Discharge, No Courts-Martial		Honorable Discharge, with Courts-Martial		Other-than-Hon. Discharge	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
A ALL US	718	93.4	31	4.0	20	2.6
A <sub>1</sub> US AFQT Cat. I-III	491	95.9	15	2.9	6	1.2
A <sub>2</sub> US AFQT Cat. IV or below	227	88.3	16	6.2	14	5.4
B ALL RA	83	78.3	12	11.3	11	10.4
B <sub>1</sub> RA AFQT Cat. I-III	73	88.0	8	10.0	2	2.0
B <sub>2</sub> RA AFQT Cat. IV or below	10	43.5	4	17.4	9	39.1
Critical Ratios						
A vs B	4.96*		3.09*		3.79*	
A <sub>1</sub> vs B <sub>1</sub>	2.76*		22.63*			
A <sub>2</sub> vs B <sub>2</sub>	7.65*					
A <sub>1</sub> vs A <sub>2</sub>	4.00*		2.20		3.35*	
B <sub>1</sub> vs B <sub>2</sub>	4.45*					

\*Significant at the .01 level of confidence.



In the "RA" sample, the 22 percent in the AFQT IV and V sample accounted for 57 percent of the unfavorable criterion category. Thus, the AFQT criterion relationship was even more marked in the "RA" sample than among inductees.

In summary, then, this test verified that enlisted men in mental categories of the Armed Forces Qualification Test III and above had significantly lower future disciplinary action in their service time than men in categories IV and V. Education and the verbal test of the Army Classification Battery showed consistent relationship to the criterion of disciplinary action.

That differences in values exist between individuals who fail to perform according to the rules and regulations of their immediate environment, as contrasted with those who do conform would seem to be an obvious hypothesis. The determination of value and other personality correlates of nonconforming, or delinquent, behavior is an important step to be taken towards understanding the potentially habitual or frequent offender. From such an understanding, programs for selection can be more meaningfully directed.

Previous investigations have suggested that value dimensions are related to delinquency. Gordon (1961), for example, has noted that delinquent groups differ consistently and significantly from nondelinquent groups on the Conformity Scale of the Survey of Interpersonal Values (SIV). Knapp (1963) also found that conformity scores were significantly related to the rate of delinquency criterion within a Navy delinquent sample. Further, in the latter study, the Socialization Scale (SO) of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) was found to be significantly related to the delinquency rate criterion. The development of that scale



is founded upon the notion that a continuum of socialization exists along which individuals vary and that the determination of a person's position on this continuum can be ascertained by psychological measurement (Gough, 1960).

Knapp's test, conducted to examine the significance of difference between values held by those having a record of disciplinary offenses as compared with those having no such record, was performed using two groups from a Navy ship. The groups were selected to be as nearly equated as feasible on the variables of education, verbal aptitude, age, and length of service, which have been previously demonstrated to be associated with delinquency potential.

Because perfect matching of the groups was not feasible, analysis of covariance was used as shown in Table 6, to reduce the error variance thus providing a more sensitive test of the differences between groups on the variables under study.

Subjects were divided into offender and non-offender groups on the basis that any offense classified them as an offender. The most common offenses were AWOL, disrespect to a superior, and failure to obey a lawful order. The DF Opinion Survey measured 10 dynamic, or motivational factors. In the "SIV Test," the examinee was instructed to answer "Yes" or "No" to the phrase behind each item that read, "It is important to me" with his score being the total number of "Yes's". The SO Scale was administered to predict delinquency and was shown to be significantly related to an offense criterion in the Navy.

Table 6 shows that 3 of the 10 dimensions measured by the DF Opinion Survey significantly differentiated between the offender and non-offender





TABLE 6

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE FOR COMPARISON OF OFFENDER  
AND NONOFFENDER GROUPS

Value and Personality Dimensions	Adjusted Means		Mean Squares		F
	Offenders	Nonoffenders	Error	Groups	
DF Opinion Survey					
Need for attention	17.72	14.61	39.67	190.36	4.80
Liking for thinking	14.76	13.73	40.01	45.44	1.14
Adventure vs. security	19.73	16.19	25.43	244.84	9.63
Self reliance vs. de- pendence	15.92	14.74	32.04	27.16	.88
Aesthetic appreciation	11.72	10.03	61.03	56.28	.92
Cultural conformity	14.84	15.98	24.03	25.39	1.06
Need for freedom	15.57	12.30	29.75	201.01	7.06
Realistic thinking	12.72	14.87	34.10	89.87	2.64
Need for precision	10.94	10.07	59.93	97.93	2.68
Need for diversion	14.71	12.47	36.52	15.15	.26
Dimensions Reflected from SIV					
Support	7.96	9.25	19.99	32.96	1.65
Conformity	8.85	11.14	21.70	102.68	4.73
Recognition	6.61	5.70	14.29	16.33	1.14
Independence	12.00	9.57	14.19	114.47	8.07
Benevolence	5.77	7.36	22.09	49.50	2.24
Leadership	6.50	5.68	19.75	13.13	.67
CPI					
So Scale	25.62	30.49	54.07	465.44	8.61





groups. Of the 6 dimensions measured by the normative instrument designed to reflect SIV values, 2 significantly differentiated the groups.

The CPI Scale also differentiated between the groups at a high level of significance and in the expected direction.

The results of the test depict the potential military offender as having a greater need for attention, adventure, and freedom. The value dimensions depict the offender as placing less importance on conformity and greater importance, conversely, on independence. The military atmosphere may be a perfect breeding ground for these tendencies to get out of hand and erupt into an overt act of violation of rules set forth.

A noteworthy feature of the above findings is that the information was gathered easily and economically via the "self-report" technique. Although this method is often criticized on the basis that answers are merely manifestations of pedestrian conceptions of social acceptability and/or desirability, results prove this type data to be extremely valuable if questionnaires are intelligently and thoroughly prepared.

Another finding in this value measurement area is that among lower education, lower GCT groups, attitudes favorable to escapism (as reflected by the measures of inclination to freedom, independence and adventure) when combined with non-conformist attitudes towards regulations, produce positive tendencies in the direction of delinquency.

In a test conducted by the Army at Fort Campbell, Kentucky, (Smothers, 1961) 165 cases were examined to see whether a relationship existed between learning ability and military ineffectiveness. The men tested were relatively free of underlying psychopathology, or as revealing underlying characterological disturbances. For the most part,



they had constructed patterns of adjustment suggesting sociopathic traits leading to military ineffectiveness.

The "GT Test" administered measured potential for formal learning and correlated significantly with level of formal education. There was evidence to suggest that lower measured formal learning ability seems associated with a predisposition to adjusting to military life. Though intelligence alone may not serve as a good predictor of military inadequacy, it could, with other indices, function as a sieve to help the military services in identifying ineffectiveness in military life.

Although not performed under military sponsorship, Argyle (1961) conducted a series of tests with teenagers. Several personality dimensions were investigated, the main device being the Psychopathic Deviate Scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. This test was able to differentiate delinquents from non-delinquents and proves correlated mean sample scores have the ability to indicate measurable personality differences.

Results of this and many other investigative efforts point to five personality areas which distinguish delinquent from non-delinquent groups:

1. Super Ego Strength. In tests of inclination to cheat, given to reformatory boys and a control group, scores correlated at .55 with the reformatory group. Likewise, tests measuring moral values using socially acceptable determinants of right and wrong, the reformatory group scored significantly lower and were found more disrespectful of authority and harder to correct with punishment.



2. Identification with family and peers. Delinquents seem to have poor overall relations with parents. Boys generally reject their fathers as models for imitation. Delinquents tend to refuse to accept parents as leaders and are more apt to follow the guidance of "friends." Level of occupational aspiration was also lower for delinquents, which correlates with the low status of father perception.

3. Ego Control vs. Impulsiveness. In the Porteus Maze Test, scores measuring errors committed going through a maze of "obstacles" show delinquents to be relatively high. It was theorized from the results that delinquents desire more immediate action and associated satisfaction. They proved low in self-control and tended toward impulsiveness, showing considerable lack of perseverance, consistency, and emotional maturity.

4. Sympathy. Delinquents proved less able to distinguish social approval and estimate the feelings and emotions of others. They tended to be more cruel and aggressive in dealing with others, and less sensitive to the particular situation.

5. Neuroticism. Delinquents also tend to have lower frustration tolerance and higher levels of emotional conflict. (The word neurotic is slightly misleading in this connection as it relates to hysteria. Actually it deals more with the weak ego control characteristic of delinquents.)

One of the most recent steps in support of the use of the self-report questionnaire for screening inductees, based on personality values and temperament, is another study by Knapp (1965). In general, this technique has met with considerable success in differentiating delinquents from non-delinquents, and further, in differentiating the frequent, or chronic offender from the occasional and less serious offender.





The procedure for this study was to examine a group of 92 confinees of the U. S. Navy Brig at San Diego and compare them with a group of 98 enlisted men from San Diego Navy Station and a heavy cruiser. Subject groups were equated for age (17 to 31 years), formal education completed (7 to 13 years), GCT scores (34 to 71), and length of service (7 to 67 months).

The objective personality dimensions considered were those obtained from Cattell's Objective - Analytic Personality Test Battery (O-A Battery), the factor descriptions of which are listed in Table 7. Since the first aim of the study was to compare an offender group with a non-offender group on the personality dimensions tapped by the O-A Battery, the effects of variables of GCT score, educational level, and length of service were controlled, as these, in themselves, differentiate delinquent groups from non-delinquent groups. Where perfect control was not possible the analysis of co-variance was used.

Referring to Table 7 again, we see the adjusted means for the objective test dimensions and tests of significance of difference between brig and non-brig samples. Partial correlation of the personality factors against number of offenses is also presented.

Of the 18 factors listed it can be seen that 8 significantly differentiated offenders from non-offenders at the confidence level of .05 or higher. From interpretation of these factors the offender group is depicted as highly Self Centered, highly Over-Responsive, possessing a greater nervous feeling for action (Capacity to Mobilize), showing greater Independence and more Anxiety. The non-offenders scored higher on Realism in viewpoint. Several low-order relationships run contrary to normal expectations. The delinquent group scored higher on Inhibition



TABLE 7

## PERSONALITY TEST FACTORS

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE SUMMARY TABLE FOR COMPARISON OF A BRIG AND A  
NONOFFENDER SAMPLE ON OBJECTIVE PERSONALITY TEST FACTORS

Universal Index	Factor description	Adjusted means		Error	Groups	F	$r^2_{12.345^a}$
		Brig sample (N = 92)	Non- offender (N = 98)				
UI 16	Assertiveness	34.25	35.43	29.27	62.64	2.14	.05
UI 17	Inhibition	35.60	34.12	22.76	98.92	4.35*	.03
UI 18	Insecure Over-compensation	25.00	24.11	17.04	35.66	2.09	.07
UI 19	Critical Exactness	25.60	24.60	20.63	46.25	2.24	.03
UI 20	Social Conformity	40.54	38.48	21.13	192.65	9.12**	.13
UI 21	Exuberance	39.45	40.08	32.76	18.11	.55	-.03
UI 22	Alertness	30.26	28.95	27.33	76.97	2.82	-.02
UI 23	Capacity to Mobilize	20.49	19.32	13.17	62.65	4.76*	-.04
UI 24	Anxiety	31.18	29.14	22.31	187.81	8.42**	-.10
UI 25	Realism	34.12	36.02	31.40	165.48	5.27*	.02
UI 26	Self-Centeredness	41.68	37.77	21.31	693.99	32.56***	-.17
UI 27	Apathy	29.43	30.50	20.53	52.40	2.55	.11
UI 28	Inner Weakness	29.89	29.26	16.52	18.15	1.10	.04
UI 29	Overresponsiveness	31.29	28.05	21.65	477.57	22.06***	.02
UI 30	Independence	15.78	14.41	9.58	85.67	8.94**	-.17
UI 31	Wary Realism	34.79	35.21	18.70	8.00	.43	-.01
UI 32	Extraversion	30.50	30.01	20.34	10.75	.53	.12
UI 33	Dourness	14.61	15.40	9.98	28.35	2.84	-.02



and Social Conformity than the non-brig sample.

Although several factors can be considered as dependable predictors, most confidence can be placed in "Over-Responsiveness and Self-Centeredness." As stated earlier, none of the objective factors listed in Table 7 can be considered to be related to number of offenses committed.

Although considerable work may still be necessary to increase effectiveness and reliability, the above findings provide irrefutable evidence that identification of potential chronic offenders is indeed possible through personality tests and background analysis.

With the above in mind, the question arises as to the prognosis for rehabilitation of those who, by their disciplinary records, are classified as chronic offenders. Are, in fact, some of these individuals curable?

At the present time, the outlook for rehabilitation of such personnel is not overly optimistic. Historically, punishment has proven to be a woefully inadequate rectifying influence upon behavior. In fact, experiments performed by Dinsmoor (1953) indicate punishment can often become a subconscious goal, especially to persons suffering from personality maladjustments. It is, therefore, paradoxical that negative reinforcement can actually strengthen the very behavior it attempts to extinguish. Mussen (1963), writing relative to studies he made concerning motivation and learning, seems to believe that the difficulty in reforming socially unacceptable behavior stems from the fact that such behavior has occasionally led to reinforcing experience - the problem being that behavior, only randomly reinforced, is the most difficult to extinguish. Simple punishment, as evidenced by the high percentage of "repeaters" in our penal institutions, is obviously not the answer. The solution - someday - may be psychotherapy, although little progress has been made to date in





this area. Even when treatment facilities have been available, therapy has proven, at best, difficult. Despite all the best efforts, the individual may just not desire to be reformed.

Some studies have, however, given moderate hope for rehabilitative techniques. The U. S. Army, aware that more study was needed in the area of reforming military offenders, observed that psychological evaluation and assistance were seldom, if ever, given to deviates until they were subjected to punitive confinement. Since such confinement was usually a culmination of a well established list of offenses, it was concluded that these men might be better helped if such assistance corresponded to earlier violations.

As objective criterion of "being in trouble" was (perhaps not too realistically) set at a man's first court-martial. A group of these individuals was then screened in hopes of preventing further misbehavior. (Nichols, 1962) Begun at Ft. Bragg, North Carolina in 1959, a sample totalling 465 "first-timers" was used.

The first step was to visit the man's unit, where data was obtained from his personal and health records relative to past performance, personality characteristics, and background. Additionally, Commanding Officers and senior "non-coms" were asked to evaluate past performance and assess potential value to the service.

Upon receipt of the above data, the offenders were randomly assigned to one of three groups: a control group, a mock experimental group and an experimental group. All groups were approximately the same size.

Men in the control group were never seen and received no assistance, but were followed up six months later. Men in the two other groups were brought to a clinic, interviewed for a "social history" and given





psychological tests, after which the professional staff (a psychologist, a psychiatrist, and a social worker) reviewed all the data and then recommended what help the man should receive. Only the actual experimental group, however, received the recommended therapy, and the staff were not aware of the group to which an individual was assigned.

At the end of six months, a follow-up study was conducted. The findings indicated that the manner in which a man was handled by his unit, both before and after court-martial, made a significant impression on his subsequent performance. This serves to emphasize the general observation that offenders, especially those with character disorders, are often influenced in their behavior by the level of receptiveness or hostility of their environment. An hypothesis made from these findings contends that job and/or environment changes, combined with a genuine interest by superiors, can make positive contributions to attitudinal and behavioral changes. This seems more profitable than the conventional attempts to change basic character structure.

In another rehabilitative effort conducted from 1952 to 1959 by the U. S. Navy at Camp Elliott, San Diego, California (Grant, 1959), an attempt was made to bring about attitudinal and behavioral change in non-conformists, confinees of a correctional institution, by placing them in small closed communities. Men were selected for the research groups on the basis of fitting into certain levels of a scale of interpersonal maturity. Groups were composed of high social maturity, low maturity, and half high and half low maturity men. Twenty confined men with three Marine supervisors lived in the same quarters, ate together, participated in competitions as a unit, and shared work, educational and recreational experiences.



The attempt here was to keep all interpersonal reactions within the group. It was hypothesized that forcing the delinquent to live with and face his interpersonal problems would bring about in him a challenging uncomfortableness, which would lead to personality change. A followup report of each man six months after he returned to active duty showed great success in this procedure, especially among the high maturity group that was willing to meet its problems. It also demonstrated the beneficial effect of defining a man's place in any community by allowing him to perform his function in the over-all operation of the group, gaining for him a satisfying feeling of living life properly.

Apparent from the above, as well as many other studies, definite rehabilitation seems possible only after considerable therapy and constant supervision. Present military budgets and personnel levels preclude large scale application of correctional techniques which require long term intensive treatment and care. In almost every case, writers point out that rehabilitation is possible only after lengthy and costly measures, and even then, subjects are likely to regress when placed in a stress situation.



## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS AND OBSERVATIONS

With the world situation becoming more explosive and tense each day, the requirement for a large U. S. military establishment is of prime importance for the security of the country and the free world nations. The problem is aggravated by the large number of officers and enlisted personnel who are choosing to leave their respective services upon the expiration of obligated service. To maintain minimum manning levels, it has become necessary for the armed forces to steadily relax overall standards for eligibility and admission. It now appears inevitable that the draft will have to be totally re-instituted to provide the military services with the required man power.

In view of current military obligations and commitments and aware that a large portion of our populace (indeed, even our legislators) consider one of the essential functions of the military establishment to be that of maturing, regulating and rehabilitating impetuous young Americans, it would be unrealistic to propose sweeping and dramatic changes to current procurement policy. It is not possible to maintain high quality standards without sacrificing urgently needed personnel strength. It is imperative, therefore, that the military must accept individuals who, on the basis of intelligence, personality and background, must be categorized as marginal.

This does not mean, however, that we are confronted with an untenable dilemma. It does mean that new methods for evaluation, placement and management of personnel - all personnel - are necessary to guarantee optimum effectiveness and efficiency.





To see what the military establishment is currently doing to cope with these problems, the authors visited several large military commands. The first was a joint military examining center in a nearby metropolitan area. This installation, the second largest of its kind in the Western United States, handles between 150 and 300 potential inductees daily. Staffed by the Army, Navy and Air Force personnel, it examines and classifies potential servicemen, both those wishing to enlist and those merely being processed under the requirements of selective service.

Due to a seemingly genuine interest by the individual military service branches in psychological testing, and in view of the relative effectiveness with which several test systems are able to predict potential unstable individuals, one might expect to find at least a moderate employment of such devices by an examining, evaluation, and classification center.

Unfortunately, our visit indicated that this is not the case. The only tests that were administered by this activity were those designed to measure general intelligence and basic aptitude. Because of its size and prime location, this installation can logically be considered typical of such establishments and not unique in its operations. Psychological/psychiatric evaluation is given on a "part-time" basis by a civilian psychiatrist only when an examinee indicates in a basic questionnaire that he suffers from psychological problems. Even then, evaluation is made through an unstructured interview. According to one of the staff, disqualification for psychological reasons is "extremely rare - usually only for homosexuality."

Almost all screening and classification, for other than medical reasons, is accomplished by reviewing the individual's police/criminal



record. Information is obtained (later checked by the F.B.I.) through a basic questionnaire after the examinee has been instructed to list all civil offenses committed - including traffic violations - under the obligations contained in Article 83 (Fraudulent Enlistment) of the Uniform Code of Military Justice. Review of these records provides the only apparent discriminatory device used by this facility.

When queried as to acceptability criterion, no definite answer could be given by the staff of this facility. No exact operating instructions or policy guides were used (they said) as decision-making standards. Acceptability for entrance into the armed forces for an examinee with a juvenile record seems dependent upon the subjective evaluation of the examinee and his record by a commissioned officer. (Those officers interviewed admitted to no training or background in such work.) The basis for evaluation of "borderline" cases is an unstructured, informal interview.

Cases classified as "serious" because of the "length and/or severity of civilian offenses committed," are forwarded to Washington, D.C., where, after an involved and lengthy process (seemingly complicated and bureaucratic) final decisions are made. According to the executive officer of this command, there is no criterion between cases which are "serious" and "not serious", other than the opinion of the commanding officer. Also, no psychological/personality tests are given to accompany the basic data and information forwarded to Washington on "serious cases." Again according to the executive officer of this unit, decisions made in Washington relative to serious cases "often don't make much sense."

Both authors were struck with the profound impression that this particular activity was so involved in and overwhelmed by the task of pro-



cessing, examining, and classifying potential servicemen, that it is unable to realistically and successfully do so. Methods used were tedious and slow, with each record being handled by many people. Stacks of questionnaires and record folders abounded in the office areas and staff personnel seemed to sag under their sheer weight. The objective of those who worked there seemed to be to "process the paperwork" rather than to selectively and objectively determine individual suitability. Although this paper is not intended as a critique of the organizational effectiveness of this command, the striking requirement for more effective processing procedures and methodology - which could most assuredly be enhanced by a comprehensive series of psychological/personality tests - for all activities of this nature, makes these observations pertinent to the findings of this report.

The conclusions of this visit then are:

1. For all practical purposes, acceptability into the Armed Forces of the United States, except for medical reasons and cases involving admitted homosexuality, is primarily influenced by the existence or lack of a person's juvenile police record.

2. The criteria which separates those cases which are "serious" from those which are not is indefinite, ambiguous and subjective.

3. Personnel reviewing and evaluating potential servicemen are generally, on the basis of their training, background and experience, unqualified to do so.

4. Automatic data processing methods are needed at once to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of this and similar centers.

Subsequent to the findings above, and still expecting to encounter psychological/personality testing procedures, information was gathered





from the Army's Fort Ord, California, and the Navy's Recruit Training Center, San Diego, California, relative to testing methods employed during induction and basic training. The results of our investigations indicate that no psychological/personality tests are administered during the induction/basic training phase. Recruits are received, processed, indoctrinated, placed in an occupational category consistent (as far as possible) with intelligence, aptitude and personal preference, given basic training and reassigned to operating commands. No data relative to psychological framework, personality characteristics, emotional stability, or environmental influences, is generated for use by the individual's prospective commanding officer. Such data, properly presented (including security precautions, such as coding) would be extremely valuable in assisting a command to effect proper placement and would increase perception and insight into the motivations and behavior of each individual.

Both authors noted a common characteristic of the staff personnel assigned to the activities that were visited, when questioned relative to the psychological/personality testing procedures employed by their commands, that their replies could be summarized as follows: "I'm sure we do it somewhere around here but I'm not sure just where." As might be expected, nowhere within the activities visited was such testing conducted on a regular basis, not even for those designated as "serious offender cases."

The need for such data - and for personnel who are qualified by training and education to use and administer it wisely - seems, at least to the authors, to be intuitively obvious. If the military is to keep abreast of the age in which we live and be able to satisfy the





requirements placed upon us, then the maximum potential of our manpower resources must be realized. Present policies do not appear capable of dealing realistically with integrating the "whole" personality into the social/professional environment of the military establishment. We have not, as such, kept pace with the technological advancements made by experimenters working in the behavioral sciences.

It would seem expedient and practical, therefore, to devote adequate financial resources to provide the capability to screen, counsel, and attempt to rehabilitate potential chronic offenders - "a priori" - before their deviant behavior disrupts and reduces the over-all effectiveness of an operating military activity.



## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

According to a study performed by a Navy doctor, (Kaufman and Meyer, 1961) the best way to rehabilitate an individual "chronic offender" is through extended psychiatric counselling under controlled working and living conditions.

Based on the premise that the typical offender is not a rational thinker and that pure punishment is wasted until the individual is oriented toward a realistic concept of himself and his relationship with others, this study was an attempt, on a practical level, to manipulate conduct and behavior through the counselling of a Medical Officer. The three objectives of the experiment were:

1. Find out the psychological problems of chronic and potentially chronic offenders.
2. Get them to think logically about their place in their environment.
3. Explain the problem to the man's division officer and petty officers so that they could help where appropriate.

In this experiment, the Medical Officer examined the records of 358 enlisted personnel serving aboard a U. S. Navy destroyer, and made what he called a "statistical study." Data indicated that during the preceding year, 83 men had been to mast for a total of 123 offenses. Of these men, 77 per cent were serving in their first enlistment. Their average age was 21.7 years, their average schooling 9.27 years, and their average GCT score was 42.6. Two-thirds of these men had families in which divorce, separation of parents or death of one or both parents



occurred during childhood. (Among the one-third whose parents were still living together, some of the family relationships were found to be far from normal or ideal.)

Of particular significance to the Medical Officer was the group of 15 men who had been to "mast" three or more times. Their average GCT score was 39. None of these men had completed high school prior to entry into the Navy, the average level of education being only 8.5 years. The parents of only one of these men were living together.

The pattern of offenses for this "chronic" group was then thoroughly examined. Almost all had a bad record for all previous years of service. The first incidence of misconduct recorded against these men was usually an occasional minor infraction, such as being late. The frequency of these infractions soon increased sharply, and the type of offense changed abruptly from minor to serious. Once the habit of committing major offenses was established, "the further usefulness of these men to the Navy appeared doubtful" (Kaufman, 1961). According to the author, "At some point during this pattern of misconduct there appears to be a crucial turning point where the man can be salvaged, but beyond which he is 'lost', in that the probability of improvement is no longer worth the effort."

The study states further that it is doubtful that any man consciously and willingly begins the path to disciplinary difficulty with a knowledge of what the consequences may be. In order to understand these men, it was believed that a thorough knowledge of their basic motivation was necessary. To accomplish this, the chronic offender group was interviewed extensively by the Medical Officer.





Almost all of these men, the Medical Officer noted, displayed some insecurity, emotional immaturity of some degree, and lack of personal drive and motivation. In their relationships with their families, little understanding or affection was evident. These men rebelled against discipline and authority both at home and at school. They felt that they were not understood by their parents. There was evidence, the study noted, that many of these boys were given too much freedom at home and when some degree of discipline was attempted by the parents, a veritable explosion of personalities occurred. In an attempt to escape from their "unacceptable family situations," these men either volunteered or were pressured by their parents to join the Navy. None claimed they realized that instead of escaping discipline and regimentation, they actually were fleeing into a closed society of strict discipline with rigid enforcement of ideals and standards of conduct.

Many of the men felt that they were "just bodies" who did the work no one else wanted to do. Few of them understood what, if any, importance was attached to their work and position, or how what they did contributed to the over-all effectiveness and readiness of their unit. They expressed a feeling that no one really seemed interested in or cared about what their problems and goals were. In effect, they felt insecure, receiving little or no recognition. (This, according to the author, is a rather typical attitude of the immature mind in that the individual seeks recognition but does not particularly care for the means by which it is obtained.)

None of these men had ever attempted to seek advice from their superiors as to how to improve themselves and straighten out their personal problems. Each felt that the Navy had done nothing to improve his lot as compared to the situations experienced prior to enlistment. In this



frame of mind, it was judged to be an easy step for these people to develop the attitude that personal gratification of any sort was preferable to their unpleasant dull routine.

From the information gathered on these men, the author then developed a pattern of rehabilitation for each man, because it was felt that each must be approached in a manner which is personally appealing to him. Generally, however, the rehabilitative cycle involved repeated interviews by the Medical Officer, with close consultation being maintained with the commanding and executive officers. During these interviews, an attempt was made to get the man to express himself on any topic. Fallacious ideas were discussed fully with the man, and extreme care taken never to talk down to him or ignore his opinions. Rather, the mood was established as one which respected his ideas and feelings. The men soon started feeling that they were receiving some identity and recognition, and were able, before long, to concede that their major problems had mostly been of their own making.

The next step was one of getting each man oriented in a "constructive" program of self improvement. Education and professional advancement was stressed, with personal attention given by division officers, petty officers and ship personnel.

The results of the program described above became apparent only gradually. For a time the Medical Officer was very pessimistic, feeling he was wearing himself out in "bull sessions," to no avail. The statistics, however, proved otherwise. The attention and understanding applied to this "chronic offender group" had so increased their self-esteem that all showed some improvement and a few made real progress



toward advancement. In the first six months of this program, the mast rate dropped 40 per cent below the pace of the previous year, even though the commanding and executive officers were the same, and the ship was in the same general operating area.

The results of this study reaffirm the findings reported in the earlier chapter of this paper, relative to family background, personality characteristics, general intelligence and educational achievements of deviant individuals. This study also indicates the disruptive influence of these chronic offenders on the effectiveness of a military unit. Although the solution offered - i.e., thorough psychological analysis followed by lengthy individual rehabilitation and personality reconstruction - proved to be relatively successful, it cannot be endorsed as efficient or practical for the average military command.

Many military units do not have Medical Officers attached and as readily available as this ship. Additionally, the capabilities and competence of the average Medical Officer might be challenged in the field of psychology and sociology. What is more, many military activities simply do not have sufficient time or personnel to provide the care and attention necessary for the essential rehabilitative climate. Therefore, although the approach used above has proven effective, it is far too cumbersome and demanding to be generally acceptable for use by individual military units.

The answer to this dilemma, as proposed by the authors of this report is as follows:

Step 1. The initial requirement would be a comprehensive, fake-proof, and reliable personality test series which could be easily taken,





scored and administered. Such a series, seemingly well within the capabilities and contemporary behavioral scientists, could ideally be financed through joint service sponsorship.

Step 2. All prospective military inductees should be given this test series during the initial examination and classification stage.

Step 3. Except for extreme cases, where complete disorientation or character disintegration is obvious, test results should not be used as the sole criterion for ultimate military unacceptability.

Step 4. When test results indicate significant psychological/personality maladjustment sufficient to categorize an individual as "potentially unsuitable," assignment should be made to a special basic training installation where the necessary personal guidance, counselling, attention and psychological reorientation could be affected. Such a center, integrated with the traditional basic training unit, would be staffed by professional personnel capable of creating and maintaining the controlled emotional climate necessary to enable the potential chronic offender to successfully adjust to the rigors and regimentation of military life.

Step 5. An essential feature of this program would be the realistic assignment of these men to job categories which are consistent with their individual attitudes, capabilities and psychological predispositions. Although such a procedure is claimed for all military personnel, more care must be devoted to "custom - fit" members of this group than is normally characteristic of the assignment process.

Step 6. Subsequent to "graduation" and assignment of these individuals to operational activities, the complete personality inventory, based on the test series taken during classification and performance during "special basic training," must be forwarded to the man's commanding





officer. Such data, presented in some confidential coded form would be an extremely valuable aid in the administration and processing procedure. Also, it would provide a wealth of insight when any deviant behavior was noted.

Step 7. Based on the performance of these individuals with the operating forces, feedback information could be forwarded by commanding officers to assess results and maximize effectiveness of the program. Such a system would, naturally, have many flaws initially. But, eventually, through an intelligent reporting system, procedures could be modified so as to generate the highest possible productivity.

Admittedly, the methodology described above is idealistic, utopian and very ambitious. It must be remembered, however, that the study of human behavior is among the most bewildering of disciplines. It is essential, therefore, that the military establishment realize the complexity of human beings, pull its head out of the sand and face up to the difficult and unpleasant problems it faces relative to its personnel. Certainly, military discipline has for many years been one of these problems.

If there is one overwhelming requirement developed by this study, it is the need for action - to accept the findings of the behavioral scientist - and then to implement his methods to provide more competent personnel management machinery. It is realized, of course, that the process called for by this paper would not be capable of reorienting the attitudes and behavior of all "marginal" inductees to acceptable minimums. It is felt, though, that such a system could contribute in a positive manner to reduce the frequency and severity of military



offenses. The formation of the "deviant habit" within these individuals would be inhibited and the process would act as a brake, restricting these men from passing the point beyond which salvaging is impossible. The long range effect of such a system would surely be an increase in the quality and stability of the personnel within the operating military activities.

There is no denying that current political and military policies and pressures have forced us into a distasteful position regarding minimum eligibility standards. Unable, as we are, to change the requirements placed upon us, we must look for new methods to optimize human performance.

This paper has, we think, presented the problem from a slightly different viewpoint. Hopefully, the recommendations made will be a step in the long journey toward more effective utilization of every man and woman serving in the armed forces.



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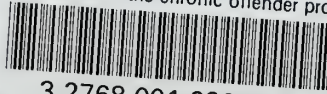






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